

1 UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS
2 FOR THE SECOND CIRCUIT
3 August Term, 2005

4 (Argued: May 16, 2006)

Decided: September 12, 2006)

5 Docket Nos. 05-5341-cv(L); 05-5870-cv(XAP); 05-6445-CV(CON)

6 FIELD DAY, LLC, F/K/A NEW YORK MUSIC FESTIVAL, LLC, AEG LIVE LLC, F/K/A AEG
7 CONCERTS LLC,

8 Plaintiffs-Appellees-Cross-Appellants,

9 v.

10 COUNTY OF SUFFOLK, SUFFOLK COUNTY DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH SERVICES, SUFFOLK COUNTY
11 EXECUTIVE ROBERT GAFFNEY, COMMISSIONER OF THE SUFFOLK COUNTY DEPARTMENT OF
12 HEALTH SERVICES BRIAN HARPER, COMMISSIONER OF THE SUFFOLK COUNTY POLICE
13 DEPARTMENT JOHN C. GALLAGHER, DIRECTOR OF THE SUFFOLK COUNTY DEPARTMENT OF
14 HEALTH SERVICES ROBERT MAIMONI, CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF PUBLIC HEALTH PROTECTION
15 BRUCE WILLIAMSON, PRINCIPAL PUBLIC HEALTH SANITARIAN ROBERT GERDTS, DEPUTY
16 SUFFOLK COUNTY ATTORNEY ROBERT CABBLE, DEPUTY SUFFOLK COUNTY EXECUTIVE JOE
17 MICHAELS, AND SERGEANT PATRICK MAHER OF THE SUFFOLK COUNTY POLICE DEPARTMENT,

18 Defendants-Appellants,

19 NEW YORK STATE HEALTH COMMISSIONER ANTONIA C. NOVELLO,

20 Defendant-Appellant,

21 TOWN OF RIVERHEAD AND RIVERHEAD CHIEF OF POLICE DAVID HEGERMILLER,

22 Defendants.
23

24 Before: MINER and WESLEY, Circuit Judges, and SWAIN, District Judge.¹

25 Consolidated interlocutory appeals and cross-appeal from two orders of the United States
26 District Court for the Eastern District of New York (Hurley, J.) in § 1983 case alleging violations
27 of First Amendment free speech rights arising from the failure of defendant county to grant a

¹ The Honorable Laura Taylor Swain of the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York, sitting by designation.

1 permit to plaintiff concert promoters to hold a two-day concert festival in a public park, the
2 District Court in the first order having: (I) declared portions of New York's Mass Gathering Law
3 facially unconstitutional; (ii) severed the unconstitutional portions of the statute; and (iii) granted
4 an injunction against application of the severed portions to plaintiffs by state, county, and town
5 defendants; and in the second order having denied motions to dismiss pursuant to Fed. R. Civ. P.
6 12(b)(6) made by defendant public officers in their individual capacities, premised on lack of
7 standing and qualified immunity.

8 Affirmed in part, reversed in part, and remanded.

9 CHRISTOPHER A. JEFFREYS, Assistant
10 County Attorney (Christine Malafi, County
11 Attorney, on the brief), Hauppauge, NY, for
12 Defendants-Appellants.

13 GREGORY SILBERT, Assistant Solicitor
14 General (Michelle Aronowitz, Deputy
15 Solicitor General, of counsel, Eliot Spitzer,
16 Attorney General, on the brief), New York,
17 NY, for Defendant-Appellant.

18 CHARLES E. BACHMAN (Peter Obstler, of
19 counsel), O'Melveny & Meyers LLP, New
20 York, NY, for Plaintiffs-Appellees-
21 Cross-Appellants.

1 MINER, Circuit Judge:

2 These consolidated interlocutory appeals and cross-appeal arise from two orders of the
3 United States District Court for the Eastern District of New York (Hurley, J.) in an action
4 brought against state, county, town, and individual public officer defendants, pursuant to 42
5 U.S.C. § 1983, alleging violations of First Amendment free speech rights. The underlying action
6 arises from the failure by the county defendants to grant a permit to plaintiff concert promoters to
7 hold a two-day concert festival in a public park. The complaint asserts both “facial” and “as
8 applied” constitutional challenges. The first order, dated September 30, 2005: (i) declared
9 portions of N.Y. PUBLIC HEALTH LAW § 225(5)(o) (the “Mass Gathering Law”), and the New
10 York Sanitary Code, N.Y. COMP. R. & REGS. tit. 10, § 7-1.40, facially unconstitutional; (ii)
11 severed the unconstitutional portions of the statute and regulation; and (iii) granted an injunction
12 against application of those portions to plaintiffs by state, county, and town defendants. The
13 second order, also dated September 30, 2005, denied motions for dismissal pursuant to Fed. R.
14 Civ. P. 12(b)(6). These motions were premised on plaintiffs’ lack of standing and defendants’
15 qualified immunity and were made by public officer defendants in their individual capacities.

16 **BACKGROUND**

17 In June 2002 plaintiffs-appellees-cross-appellants Field Day, LLC, f/k/a New York Music
18 Festival, and AEG Live, LLC, f/k/a/ AEG Concerts, LLC, (collectively, “Field Day”) began
19 efforts to promote and produce a two-day music and art festival (“the Festival”), which was to be
20 held June 7–8, 2003, in the Town of Riverhead (“Riverhead”), County of Suffolk (“Suffolk
21 County”), New York. Field Day expected the Festival to draw 35,000 to 40,000 people. Because
22 of the duration and size of the Festival, Field Day was constrained by the provisions of New

1 York's Mass Gathering Law. See N.Y. PUBLIC HEALTH LAW § 225(5)(o) (providing that the
2 Mass Gathering Law is to apply to gatherings that are "likely to attract five thousand people or
3 more and continue for twenty-four hours or more"). Over the next several months, during which
4 Field Day worked with Riverhead and Suffolk County to obtain the requisite mass gathering
5 permit, Field Day alleges that Riverhead and Suffolk County, through their respective employees,
6 acted unlawfully in failing to approve its application through the "manipulation of constitutional
7 infirmities" in the Mass Gathering Law. Field Day ascribes Riverhead and Suffolk County's
8 failure to approve its application "to 'political' decisions by 'upper level' Suffolk County
9 officials," a "dislike for rock music concerts and their fans among certain officials," and/or "the
10 active involvement and political influence of Clear Channel Entertainment, Inc., a media
11 conglomerate that is [Field Day's] largest competitor in the concert promotion industry."

12 Field Day brought suit pursuant to 42 U.S.C. § 1983 and the Declaratory Judgment Act,
13 28 U.S.C. §§ 2201 and 2202. Field Day asserted both "facial" constitutional challenges to the
14 Mass Gathering Law and "as applied" constitutional challenges to the actions of Riverhead,
15 Suffolk County, and numerous officials and employees charged with implementing and enforcing
16 the Mass Gathering Law. On September 30, 2005, the District Court subsequently issued the two
17 orders from which the instant appeals are taken.

18 The first order dealt exclusively with Field Day's "facial" challenges and request for
19 declaratory relief. The District Court found the Mass Gathering Law to be "constitutionally
20 infirm because it allows permit denial based on unspecified considerations of 'health and safety'
21 or 'security of life and health.'" Accordingly, the District Court declared portions of New York's
22 Mass Gathering Law and the implementing provisions of the New York Sanitary Code facially

1 unconstitutional. The District Court found, however, that those portions of the Mass Gathering
2 Law and Sanitary Code not pertaining to the constitutionally impermissible “health and safety”
3 and “security of life and health” provisions were constitutionally sound. The District Court then
4 determined that the offending portions of the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code could be
5 severed from the valid provisions for the purposes of granting a preliminary injunction.

6 Accordingly, the District Court severed the unconstitutional portions of the statute and regulation
7 and granted an injunction against application of those portions to Field Day by defendant-
8 appellant New York State Health Commissioner Antonia C. Novello (the “State”) and Suffolk
9 County and its representatives, agents, and employees. This order was appealed from by the
10 State and cross-appealed from by Field Day. This Court has jurisdiction over the interlocutory
11 appeal and cross-appeal from this first order pursuant to 28 U.S.C. § 1292(a)(1).

12 The second order dealt only with motions to dismiss brought by Riverhead, the Chief of
13 Police of Riverhead, Suffolk County, the Suffolk County Department of Health Services, and
14 numerous officers and employees of Suffolk County (the “Suffolk County Employees”), pursuant
15 to Fed. R. Civ. P. 12(b)(6). The motions to dismiss were premised, inter alia, on Field Day’s
16 alleged lack of standing and the alleged qualified immunity of the Chief of Police and the Suffolk
17 County Employees. The District Court first found that Field Day, as a concert promoter, had free
18 speech rights and standing to challenge the enforcement of the Mass Gathering Law. The
19 District Court then found that qualified immunity could not be granted or denied at the pleadings
20 stage of this case because Field Day’s Second Amended Complaint adequately
21 stated a claim in alleging a violation of a clearly established constitutional right. The Suffolk
22 County employees appeal from the second order, and this Court has jurisdiction over the

interlocutory appeal from this order pursuant to 28 U.S.C. § 1291 and the “collateral order” doctrine of Cohen v. Beneficial Indus. Loan Corp., 337 U.S. 541, 69 (1949). See McKenna v. Wright, 386 F.3d 432, 436 (2d Cir. 2004).

DISCUSSION

I. The Mass Gathering Law

The 1969 Woodstock Music Festival is probably the best known and most romanticized music festival in American history. Conditions on the ground, however, were less than romantic. The show had been planned for a maximum of 50,000 attendees, but around 500,000 concert goers showed up, most crashing the gates. The highways leading to the concert were jammed with traffic for miles and people abandoned their cars and walked to the concert area. The weekend was rainy, and basic facilities and services, such as first-aid, toilets, and food and potable water, were overcrowded and over-taxed. Two people died — one from a drug overdose, the other run over by a tractor — though two births reportedly occurred. See generally N.Y. Bill Jacket, 1970 A.B. 5925-B Ch. 889; MSN Encarta, http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761588927/Woodstock_Festival.html (last viewed August 16, 2006).

About one year after Woodstock, and in direct reaction to the conditions above mentioned, the State of New York adopted the Mass Gathering Law. Intended as a “consumer protection” law, it was “designed to protect young people who go to festivals from irresponsible entrepreneurs who do not provide adequate public health and safety conditions.” As is relevant to the instant appeal, New York’s Mass Gathering Law provides:

The sanitary code may . . . require that application be made for a permit to . . . hold or promote by advertising or otherwise a mass gathering which is likely to attract five thousand people or more and continue for twenty-four hours or

1 more and authorize appropriate officers or agencies to issue such a permit when
2 the applicant is in compliance with the established regulations and when it appears
3 that . . . such gathering [can be] held without hazard to health and safety; establish
4 regulations with respect to such gatherings to provide for: the furnishing of
5 adequate undertakings to secure full compliance with the sanitary code and other
6 applicable law, adequate and satisfactory water supply and sewerage facilities,
7 adequate drainage, adequate toilet and lavatory facilities, adequate refuse storage
8 and disposal facilities, adequate sleeping areas and facilities, wholesome food and
9 sanitary food service, adequate medical facilities, insect and noxious weed
10 control, adequate fire protection, and such other matters as may be appropriate for
11 security of life or health. In his review of applications for permits for the holding
12 or promoting of such a gathering the permit-issuing official may require such
13 plans, specifications and reports as he shall deem necessary for a proper review,
14 and in his review of such applications, as well as in carrying out his other duties
15 and functions in connection with such a gathering, the permit-issuing official may
16 request and shall receive from all public officers, departments and agencies of the
17 state and its political subdivisions such cooperation and assistance as may be
18 necessary and proper[.]

19 N.Y. PUBLIC HEALTH LAW § 225(5)(o).

20 In order to implement the Mass Gathering Law, Title 10, part 7, subpart 7.1 of the New
21 York Sanitary Code provides certain specific regulations governing the issuance of Mass
22 Gathering Permits. Section 7-1.40 provides:

23 (a) No person shall hold or promote, by advertising or otherwise, a mass gathering
24 unless a permit has been issued for the gathering by the permit-issuing official.

25 (b) Application for a permit to promote or hold a mass gathering shall be made to
26 the permit-issuing official, on a form and in a manner prescribed by the State
27 Commissioner of Health, by the person who will promote or hold the mass
28 gathering. Application for a permit to promote or hold a mass gathering shall be
29 made at least 15 days before the first day of advertising and at least 45 days before
30 the first day of the gathering. Water and sewage facilities shall be constructed and
31 operational not later than 48 hours before the first day of the mass gathering. The
32 application shall be accompanied by such plans, reports and specifications as the
33 permit-issuing official shall deem necessary. The plans, reports and specifications
34 shall provide for adequate and satisfactory water supply and sewerage facilities,
35 adequate drainage, adequate toilet and lavatory facilities, adequate refuse storage
36 and disposal facilities, adequate sleeping areas and facilities, wholesome food and
37 sanitary food service, adequate medical facilities, insect and noxious weed

1 control, adequate fire protection, and such other matters as may be appropriate for
2 security of life or health.

3 . . .

4 (d) A permit may be revoked by the permit-issuing official or the State
5 Commissioner of Health if he finds that the mass gathering for which the permit
6 was issued is maintained, operated or occupied in violation of law, this Chapter,
7 or the sanitary code of the health district in which the mass gathering is located. A
8 permit may be revoked upon request of the permittee or upon abandonment of
9 operation.

10 N.Y. Comp. R. & Regs. tit. 10, § 7-1.40.

11 The Sanitary Code also provides that all mass gathering permit applications include an
12 “engineering report” containing, inter alia,

13 detailed plans for transportation arrangements from noncontiguous parking
14 facilities to the site to fully serve all reasonably anticipated requirements at a rate
15 of no less than 20,000 persons per hour; including a statement from the county
16 sheriff, State police, New York State Department of Transportation or other law
17 enforcement agency certifying that the traffic control plan is satisfactory[.]

18 Id. § 7-1.41(d)(2).

19 II. Constitutional Challenges Identified

20 A statute may unconstitutionally restrict speech in one of two primary ways. First, a
21 statute may restrict speech based on the content of that speech. Such content-based restrictions
22 are, almost always, unconstitutional: “[T]he First Amendment, subject only to narrow and
23 well-understood exceptions, does not countenance governmental control over the content of
24 messages expressed by private individuals.” Turner Broad. Sys., Inc. v. FCC, 512 U.S. 622, 641
25 (1994). Second, a statute may restrict speech incidentally, that is, the statute itself may not aim
26 to restrict speech though, through its operation, it may do so — such statutes are generally
27 referred to as “content neutral.” Laws that govern the “time, place, or manner” of protected

1 speech are content neutral and “valid provided that they are justified without reference to the
2 content of the regulated speech, that they are narrowly tailored to serve a significant
3 governmental interest, and that they leave open ample alternative channels for communication of
4 the information.” Clark v. Cmty. for Creative Non-Violence, 468 U.S. 288, 293 (1984)
5 (collecting cases); see also Ward v. Rock Against Racism, 491 U.S. 781, 791 (1989) (“The
6 principal inquiry in determining content neutrality, in speech cases generally and in time, place,
7 or manner cases in particular, is whether the government has adopted a regulation of speech
8 because of disagreement with the message it conveys.”). The parties agree that New York’s
9 Mass Gathering Law and the implementing provisions of the Sanitary Code are content-neutral,
10 time-place-manner restrictions.

11 Just as there are two classifications of statutes for First Amendment free speech purposes,
12 there are two ways to challenge a statute on First Amendment free speech grounds. A “facial
13 challenge” to a statute considers only the text of the statute itself, not its application to the
14 particular circumstances of an individual. See City of Lakewood v. Plain Dealer Pub. Co., 486
15 U.S. 750, 770 n.11 (1988). An “as-applied challenge,” on the other hand, requires an analysis of
16 the facts of a particular case to determine whether the application of a statute, even one
17 constitutional on its face, deprived the individual to whom it was applied of a protected right.
18 See, e.g., Wisconsin Right to Life, Inc. v. FEC, 126 S. Ct. 1016 (2006) (holding that McConnell
19 v. Federal Election Comm’n, 540 U.S. 93 (2003), which held the Bipartisan Campaign Reform
20 Act of 2002 (BCRA), § 203, facially constitutional, did not foreclose subsequent “as-applied”
21 challenges). As noted, Field Day attacks the Mass Gathering Law and the Sanitary Code both
22 facially and as applied.

1 III. Field Day’s Standing

2 The Suffolk County Employees argue that, although Field Day may assert its facial
3 challenge, it lacks standing to assert any as-applied claim under the Mass Gathering Law. The
4 basis for the standing argument made by the Suffolk County Employees is their belief that Field
5 Day is bringing and can only bring “third party” claims; i.e. that the only rights involved in this
6 case “belong[] to some other individuals, i.e., performers and patrons of the proposed concert.”
7 The District Court stated that this contention “had no merit.” We agree. Field Day, as a concert
8 organizer and promoter, has obvious “first party” First Amendment claims.

9 This Court’s review of whether a plaintiff has constitutional standing is de novo. Shain v.
10 Ellison, 356 F.3d 211, 214 (2d Cir. 2004). Under Article III of the Constitution, federal courts
11 have jurisdiction only over “cases” and “controversies.” U.S. Const. art. III, § 2, cl. 1. Standing
12 “is an essential and unchanging part of the case-or-controversy requirement of Article III.” Lujan
13 v. Defenders of Wildlife, 504 U.S. 555, 560 (1992). Three elements make up the “irreducible
14 constitutional minimum of standing.” Defenders of Wildlife, 504 U.S. at 560. In order to have
15 constitutional standing, first, the plaintiffs “must have suffered an injury in fact — an invasion of
16 a legally protected interest which is (a) concrete and particularized, and (b) actual or imminent,
17 not conjectural or hypothetical.” Id. Second, “there must be a causal connection between the
18 injury and the conduct complained of — the injury has to be fairly . . . trace[able] to the
19 challenged action of the defendant, and not . . . the result [of] the independent action of some
20 third party not before the court.” Id. at 560–61 (internal quotation marks omitted). Third, “it
21 must be likely, as opposed to merely speculative, that the injury will be redressed by a favorable
22 decision.” Id. at 561 (internal quotation marks omitted). Moreover, the “party invoking federal

1 jurisdiction bears the burden of establishing these elements.” Id. As the party invoking federal
2 jurisdiction, a plaintiff bears the burden of establishing that he has suffered a concrete injury or is
3 on the verge of suffering one. See id.

4 It is well-settled that event organizers have First Amendment rights and have standing to
5 protect those rights.

6 [A] private speaker does not forfeit constitutional protection simply by combining
7 multifarious voices, or by failing to edit their themes to isolate an exact message
8 as the exclusive subject matter of the speech. Nor, under our precedent, does First
9 Amendment protection require a speaker to generate, as an original matter, each
10 item featured in the communication.

11 Hurley v. Irish-American Gay, Lesbian and Bisexual Group of Boston, 515 U.S. 557, 569–70
12 (1995). Moreover, because a concert organizer has standing to facially challenge time-place-
13 manner restrictions on speech in its efforts to produce a concert, as Suffolk County concedes, the
14 same First Amendment rights are more than sufficient in this case to support a § 1983 claim
15 where those rights allegedly have been violated. See Rock Against Racism, 491 U.S. at 787–88
16 (Respondent concert organizer, prior to event, obtained preliminary injunction against some
17 aspects of municipal sound amplification guidelines. “After the concert, respondent amended its
18 complaint to seek damages and a declaratory judgment striking down the guidelines as facially
19 invalid.”). Field Day’s First Amendment free speech rights to organize an expressive activity, to

wit, a music concert,² were alleged to have been violated by Suffolk County. Accordingly, Field Day has standing to pursue its as-applied claims.

IV. Facial Challenge to the Mass Gathering Law and Injunctive Relief

A. *The Appeal Analyzed*

1. Statutory Standards

“[T]he constitutionality of a statute is a legal question subject to de novo review.” United States v. Murphy, 979 F.2d 287, 289 (2d Cir. 1992). “[W]hen a licensing statute allegedly vests unbridled discretion in a government official over whether to permit or deny expressive activity, one who is subject to the law may challenge it facially without the necessity of first applying for, and being denied, a license.” City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at 755–56 (collecting cases). In order for a facial challenge to a content-neutral, time-place-manner permit law to succeed, the challenger must show that the statute does not “contain adequate standards to guide the official’s decision and render it subject to effective judicial review.” Thomas v. Chicago Park Dist., 534 U.S. 316, 323 (2002).

[A] facial challenge lies whenever a licensing law gives a government official or agency substantial power to discriminate based on the content or viewpoint of speech by suppressing disfavored speech or disliked speakers. This is not to say that the press or a speaker may challenge as censorship any law involving

² The Supreme Court has recognized that music is speech for purposes of the First Amendment:

Music is one of the oldest forms of human expression. From Plato’s discourse in the Republic to the totalitarian state in our own times, rulers have known its capacity to appeal to the intellect and to the emotions, and have censored musical compositions to serve the needs of the state. The Constitution prohibits any like attempts in our own legal order.

Ward, 491 U.S. at 790 (internal citations omitted).

1 discretion to which it is subject. The law must have a close enough nexus to
2 expression, or to conduct commonly associated with expression, to pose a real and
3 substantial threat of the identified censorship risks.

4 City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at 759.

5 When evaluating a [facial] First Amendment challenge . . . we may
6 examine not only the text of the ordinance, but also any binding judicial or
7 administrative construction of it. And we are permitted — indeed, required — to
8 consider the well-established practice of the authority enforcing the ordinance.
9 All of these are essential as we try to make our way through the Scylla of
10 regulations that are so tightly worded that the flexibility needed for administration
11 is lacking, and the Charybdis of language so loose that, as a practical matter,
12 courts become the licensing bureau.

13 MacDonald v. Safir, 206 F.3d 183, 191 (2d Cir. 2000); see also City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at
14 770 n.11 (“[W]hen a state law has been authoritatively construed so as to render it constitutional,
15 or a well-understood and uniformly applied practice has developed that has virtually the force of
16 a judicial construction, the state law is read in light of those limits.”). In the absence of state
17 interpretation,³ federal courts “will presume any narrowing construction or practice to which the
18 law is fairly susceptible.” City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at 770 n.11 (quotation marks and citations
19 omitted).

20 “Statutory construction . . . is a holistic endeavor.” Auburn Hous. Auth. v. Martinez, 277
21 F.3d 138, 144 (2d Cir. 2002) (internal quotation marks omitted; alteration in original). In
22 interpreting statutes, this Court reads statutory language in light of the surrounding language and
23 framework of the statute. Id. “[W]here an otherwise acceptable construction of a statute would

³ We note that the court in County of Sullivan v. Filippio, 64 Misc. 2d 533, 315 N.Y.S.2d 519 (N.Y. Sup. Ct. 1970) rejected a facial challenge to the Mass Gathering Law on the merits. In that case, the court held that Public Health Law § 225(5)(o) (former § 225(4)(o)) and part 7 of the Sanitary Code were constitutional and did not set forth “vague and indefinite” requirements. Id. at 561-62. While our inquiry does not end with the recognition of Filippio, we are mindful of its value as an authoritative interpretation of the Mass Gathering Law.

1 raise serious constitutional problems,’ we may ‘construe the statute to avoid such problems
2 unless such construction is plainly contrary to the intent of [the Legislature].’” Empire
3 HealthChoice Assur., Inc. v. McVeigh, 396 F.3d 136, 144 (2d Cir 2005) (quoting Edward J.
4 DeBartolo Corp. v. Fla. Gulf Coast Bldg. & Constr. Trades Council, 485 U.S. 568, 575 (1988)).

5 Field Day argued, and the District Court found, that the “catch-all” provisions of the
6 statutory/regulatory scheme — (I) “. . . when it appears that such gathering [may be held]
7 without hazard to health or safety . . .” and (ii) “. . . such other matters as may be appropriate for
8 security of life or health . . .” in PUBLIC HEALTH LAW § 225(5)(o), and (iii) “. . . such other
9 matters as may be appropriate for security of life or health . . .” in Section 7-1.40(b) of the
10 Sanitary Code — were “untethered to any standards for determination, effectively giv[ing] the
11 permit-issuing officials unconstitutionally unbridled discretion to deny a permit for any reason
12 they see fit.” The District Court found particularly troubling the fact that, unlike the regulation
13 found constitutional in Chicago Park District, 534 U.S. at 316, the Mass Gathering Law and
14 Sanitary Code provisions did not limit a permitting official’s concerns about “health and
15 safety” and “life or health” to those that were “reasonable.” The State argues, conversely, that
16 these provisions are constitutionally acceptable under Chicago Park District because “the
17 opportunity to engage in content regulation . . . simply is not afforded by the provision[s]’ plain
18 language.” Because each party argues that Chicago Park District supports its position, we begin
19 our analysis with that case.

20 In Chicago Park District a facial challenge was brought against regulations governing the
21 granting of permits for the use of public property in Chicago. Id. at 318, 320. The regulations
22 provided that the Park District could deny an application for a permit only on one of thirteen

1 specifically enumerated grounds. Among the permissible grounds for denial of a permit was that
2 “the use or activity intended by the applicant would present an unreasonable danger to the health
3 or safety of the applicant, or other users of the park, of Park District Employees or of the public.”
4 Id. at 319 n.1 (emphasis added). The Supreme Court held the at-issue regulations constitutional,
5 as the Park District could “deny a permit only for one or more of the reasons set forth in the
6 ordinance. . . . These grounds are reasonably specific and objective, and do not leave the decision
7 to the whim of the administrator.” Id. at 324 (internal quotation marks and citations omitted).

8 Although the Supreme Court determined that the phrase “unreasonable danger to the
9 health or safety” was “reasonably specific and objective,” it did not further elaborate upon a
10 “reasonableness” standard. Given this omission, and in the absence of any express
11 reasonableness limitation in the catch-all provisions in the Mass Gathering Law, each party in
12 this case focuses its arguments on a particular part of the Mass Gathering Law’s language. The
13 State argues that “health and safety” and “life or health” is, per Chicago Park District, a
14 constitutionally adequate standard — that the Supreme Court did not “state or suggest that the
15 Chicago Ordinance’s express inclusion of the term ‘unreasonable’ played any role in that Court’s
16 analysis.” Field Day argues, conversely, that without the inclusion of such a “reasonableness”
17 limitation the Mass Gathering Law and the Sanitary Code “are devoid of any objective standards
18 to guide the [permit-issuing] official’s decision about what constitutes an objective and bona fide
19 ‘hazard to public health and safety’ sufficient to warrant a veto of the planned event.” Because
20 we determine that the phrases “health and safety” and “life or health” are capable of guiding a
21 permitting official’s decision and rendering that decision subject to effective judicial review and
22 because New York law generally provides a “reasonableness requirement,” we hold that the

1 “catch-all provisions” of the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code are constitutional on their
2 face.

3 The phrases “health and safety” and “life or health” are, as an initial observation, less
4 constitutionally suspect than language employed in statutes that have been found to be
5 unconstitutional. In Shuttlesworth v. City of Birmingham, 394 U.S. 147 (1969), the Supreme
6 Court held unconstitutional an ordinance that permitted a municipal commission to refuse to
7 issue a permit to hold a “parade, procession or other public demonstration” if in “its judgment the
8 public welfare, peace, safety, health, decency, good order, morals or convenience require that it
9 be refused.” Id. at 149–50. The Court explained that “a municipality may not empower its
10 licensing officials to roam essentially at will, dispensing or withholding permission to speak,
11 assemble, picket, or parade according to their own opinions regarding the potential effect of the
12 activity in question on the ‘welfare,’ ‘decency,’ or ‘morals’ of the community.” Id. at 153; see
13 also Nichols v. Vill. of Pelham Manor, 974 F. Supp. 243, 250 n.5 (S.D.N.Y. 1997) (declaring
14 unconstitutional a municipal ordinance permitting the chief of police to deny a permit to “solicit
15 alms, or make any other solicitation or distribute handbills, tracts, literature or similar articles
16 within the village” when doing so would “protect the health, comfort and convenience” of village
17 residents).

18 In City of Lakewood, the Supreme Court confronted an ordinance that provided that:
19 “[t]he Mayor shall either deny the application [for a permit], stating the reasons for such denial or
20 grant said permit subject to the following terms” City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at 769
21 (internal quotation marks omitted). Among those terms was “such other terms and conditions
22 deemed necessary and reasonable by the Mayor.” Id. (internal quotation marks omitted). The

1 Court determined that this ordinance not only placed no limits on the Mayor’s discretion to deny
2 a permit, but also that the ordinance placed no restraint on the conditions that the Mayor could
3 impose on the granting of a permit. Id. at 769, 772. Accordingly, the Court found the ordinance
4 to be unconstitutional.

5 Similarly, in MacDonald v. Safir, 206 F.3d 183 (2d Cir. 2000), this Court held that two
6 provisions of the New York City Administrative Code governing parade permits, “unless
7 constrained by administrative construction or by well-established practice, appear to afford the
8 Commissioner exactly the sort of discretion that has been found to violate the First Amendment.”
9 Id. at 192. Those challenged provisions included, inter alia, that the police commissioner could
10 “deny a permit if he believes the parade ‘will be disorderly in character or tend to disturb the
11 public peace’” and that the police commissioner could “grant a parade permit for any ‘occasion[]
12 of extraordinary public interest, not annual or customary.’” Id. The authority of a permit official
13 to consider issues of “health and safety” and “life and health,” conferred by the Mass Gathering
14 Law and the Sanitary Code, is much more specific and objective. Considerations of “welfare,”
15 “decency,” “morals,” or “convenience and comfort” invite a public official to consider the
16 content of speech in making permitting decisions. See Forsyth County, Ga. v. Nationalist
17 Movement, 505 U.S. 123, 134 (1992) (“Listeners’ reaction to speech is not a content-neutral
18 basis for regulation.”). An utter lack of guidance may permit a public official to consider the
19 content of speech. See Chicago Park District, 534 U.S. at 323 (“Where the licensing official
20 enjoys unduly broad discretion in determining whether to grant or deny a permit, there is a risk
21 that he will favor or disfavor speech based on its content.” (citing Forsyth County, 505 U.S. at
22 131)). By comparison, it is impossible to see how the consideration of “health and safety” or

1 “life and health” interests would have any effect on the content of speech in the context of a
2 scheme specifically designed to promote such interests. The phrases “health and safety” or “life
3 and health” simply cannot be reasonably construed to “give[] a government official or agency
4 substantial power to discriminate based on the content or viewpoint of speech by suppressing
5 disfavored speech or disliked speakers.” City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at 759.

6 That the terms “health and safety” or “life and health” do not establish with absolute
7 certainty each and every concern or issue pertaining to life, health, and safety that a public
8 official may raise before issuing a Mass Gathering permit does not render the statutory scheme
9 unconstitutional. “[P]erfect clarity and precise guidance have never been required even of
10 regulations that restrict expressive activity,” and “flexible” standards granting “considerable
11 discretion” to public officials can pass constitutional muster. Rock Against Racism, 491 U.S. at
12 794. The catch-all provisions of the Mass Gathering Law and the Sanitary Code — “health and
13 safety” and “life or health” — are “reasonably specific and objective, and do not leave the
14 decision to the whim of the administrator.” Chicago Park District, 534 U.S. at 324.

15 Nevertheless, Field Day argues that the catch-all provisions “are devoid of any objective
16 standards” to guide an official’s decision whether to grant a Mass Gathering Permit.
17 Specifically, Field Day complains that the Mass Gathering Law permits an official to use an
18 unreasonable concern about life and health to deny a permit to a disfavored speaker. Although
19 the specific health and safety concerns given in the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code are
20 conditioned by an “adequacy” requirement (“adequate and satisfactory water supply and
21 sewerage facilities, adequate drainage,” etc.), and “adequate” has been defined by the Sanitary
22 Code to mean “reasonable,” see N.Y. Comp. R. & Regs. tit. 10, § 7-1.1, no such “adequacy”

1 conditions are explicitly placed on the catch all provision — “other matters as may be
2 appropriate for security of life or health.”

3 Given the concern that the lack of an objective standard might render the catch-all
4 provision unconstitutional, and this Court’s duty to interpret the statute, if possible, to avoid such
5 concerns, see Empire HealthChoice Assur., 396 F.3d at 144–45, it is possible to interpret the
6 catch-all provision as providing such an objective standard. Although not defined in the Mass
7 Gathering law or in the Sanitary Code, the word “appropriate” is generally defined as “suitable”
8 or “proper.” See, e.g., OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY ONLINE,
9 <http://dictionary.oed.com/entrance.dtl> (search for “appropriate”) “[s]pecially fitted or suitable,
10 proper”) (definition from the 2d ed. 1989) (last visited July 19, 2006); Webster’s Third New Int’l
11 Dictionary, 106 (1981) (“specially suitable”); The Random House College Dictionary, 66
12 (Revised Ed., 1980) (“suitable or fitting for a particular purpose, occasion, person, etc.”). Given
13 the whole of the statutory scheme, see Auburn Housing Auth., 277 F.3d at 144, “other matters”
14 are “appropriate” to “secur[e]” “life or health” only to the extent that “adequate” provision for
15 that concern about “life or health” has not yet been provided. As set out above, the meaning of
16 “life or health” is understood by reference to the remainder of the statute, and “adequate” is
17 defined as “sufficient to accomplish the purpose for which something is intended, and to such a
18 degree that no unreasonable risk to health or safety is presented.” N.Y. Comp. R. & Regs. tit. 10,
19 § 7-1.1. It therefore follows that allowing a public official to condition the granting of a mass
20 gathering permit on “other matters as may be appropriate for security of life or health” allows the
21 official only to consider whether a proposed mass gathering presents unreasonable risks to life or
22 health.

1 The State further contends that the language in the first catch-all provision giving the
2 permit official the power to decide what circumstances appear to present a hazard to health and
3 safety does not render the permit scheme wholly subjective. The first clause of the Mass
4 Gathering law provides: “The sanitary code may . . . authorize appropriate officers or agencies to
5 issue such a permit when the applicant is in compliance with the established regulations and
6 when it appears that . . . such gathering [can be] held without hazard to health and safety”
7 N.Y. PUBLIC HEALTH LAW § 225(5)(o). The State argues that this clause does not directly govern
8 permitting officials, but rather serves as an enabling clause authorizing the State to promulgate
9 the regulations authorizing “appropriate officers” to issue mass gathering permits, and therefore
10 only the Sanitary Code “sets forth the standards that [those officers] are to apply.” We agree
11 with this argument.

12 Moreover, as explained above, the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code establish an
13 objective test for satisfaction of the conditions required to obtain a mass gathering permit —
14 whether unreasonable risks to genuine issues of life or health are presented by the mass
15 gathering. This inquiry requires a permit official to exercise his or her discretion in the first
16 instance to determine if a risk to life or health is presented and, if so, whether that risk is or can
17 be rendered reasonable through the actions of the applicant. It will “appear[]” to that official that
18 a mass gathering can be “held without hazard to health and safety” when, in the exercise of that
19 discretion, he or she has applied an objective standard and found no unreasonable risks that
20 would give rise to genuine concerns for life or health.

21 Given the foregoing, this Court can find no meaningful difference between the catch-all
22 provisions of the Mass Gathering Law and the Sanitary Code and the “unreasonable danger to the

1 health or safety” provision found to be constitutional in Chicago Park District, 534 U.S. at 319
2 n.1, 324. Although it is always possible for an official to violate an applicant’s constitutional
3 rights by misapplying the authority granted to him by the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary
4 Code, that concern does not render a statute facially unconstitutional. See id. at 324–25 (Where a
5 regulation permitted some level of appropriately bounded discretion “abuse must be dealt with if
6 and when a pattern of unlawful favoritism appears, rather than by insisting upon a degree of
7 rigidity that is found in few legal arrangements.”). In sum, the Mass Gathering Law and the
8 Sanitary Code, including the catch-all provisions, “are reasonably specific and objective, and do
9 not leave the decision to the whim of the administrator.” Id. at 324. Accordingly, we must
10 reverse that portion of the District Court’s judgment declaring the catch-all provisions of the
11 Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code to be unconstitutional.

12 2. Injunctive Relief

13 The District Court granted Field Day’s motion for preliminary injunction prohibiting
14 enforcement against Field Day by the State, Suffolk County, and Riverhead of those sections of
15 the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code that the District Court found unconstitutional. The
16 District Court first determined, in accordance with its findings as to unconstitutionality, that
17 Field Day had demonstrated that it was “likely to succeed on the merits of [its] underlying
18 challenge to the constitutionality of the Mass Gathering Law.” The District Court, relying on
19 Elrod v. Burns, 427 U.S. 347, 373 (1976), also found that Field Day would be irreparably harmed
20 absent the issuance of the injunction because “the loss of First Amendment freedoms, for even
21 minimal periods of time, unquestionably constitutes irreparable injury.”

22 This Court reviews a decision to grant a preliminary injunction for abuse of discretion.

1 Mastrovincenzo v. City of New York, 435 F.3d 78, 88 (2d. Cir. 2006). “The District Court
2 abuses its discretion when (1) its decision rests on an error of law . . . or a clearly erroneous
3 factual finding, or (2) its decision — though not necessarily the product of a legal error or a
4 clearly erroneous factual finding — cannot be located within the range of permissible decisions.”
5 Id. The injunction at issue in the case at bar is clearly a “prohibitory preliminary injunction,” —
6 it “stay[s] ‘government action taken in the public interest pursuant to a statutory or regulatory
7 scheme.’” Id. (quoting Plaza Health Labs., Inc. v. Perales, 878 F.2d 577, 580 (2d Cir.1989)).
8 Prohibitory preliminary injunctions are permitted “only when the moving party has demonstrated
9 that (1) absent injunctive relief, he will suffer ‘irreparable injury,’ and (2) there is ‘a likelihood
10 that he will succeed on the merits of his claim.’” Id. (citing Plaza Health Labs., 878 F.2d at 580).
11 Injuries to First Amendment rights, if being threatened or currently occurring, will satisfy the
12 “irreparable injury” requirement. Elrod, 427 U.S. at 373; New York Times Co. v. United States,
13 403 U.S. 713 (1971). This Court has warned, however, that “conjectural chill is not sufficient to
14 establish real and imminent irreparable harm.” Latino Officers Ass’n v. Safir, 170 F.3d 167, 171
15 (2d Cir. 1999).

16 The District Court’s findings as to both likelihood and injury were dependent on its
17 finding of facial unconstitutionality. Because we have determined that the Mass Gathering Law
18 and Sanitary Code are not facially unconstitutional, we must reverse the preliminary injunction.
19 Accordingly, the District Court’s determination as to facial unconstitutionality is affirmed in part
20 and reversed in part, and the preliminary injunction must be dissolved.

21 B. *The Cross-Appeal Analyzed*

1 Field Day, in its cross-appeal, argues that the District Court erred in three respects in
2 determining that the remainder of the Mass Gathering Law was constitutional.

3 1. Mandatory Issuance of Permits

4 First, Field Day argues that the Mass Gathering Law is unconstitutional because it
5 “‘authorizes’ but does not require the issuance of a mass gathering permit to an applicant who
6 has satisfied all of the permit requirements.” Field Day also draws on the 1970 press release
7 announcing the passage of the Mass Gathering Law, which stated that “permits may be issued
8 ‘when it appears that . . . such gathering [can be] held without hazard to public health or safety.’”
9 (emphasis added).

10 The District Court determined that, although the Mass Gathering Law “nowhere explicitly
11 states that once an acceptable permit application is submitted, it must be approved,” New York
12 law generally provides that “‘mandatory words may be interpreted in a merely permissive sense
13 or vice versa,’” (quoting McKinney’s Statutes § 171 cmt.) (footnotes omitted), and further
14 determined that, to the extent the Mass Gathering Law was “permissive” and “may be applied to
15 favor certain speakers over others, a more reasonable approach than striking the entire law from
16 the outset is to deal with such a pattern of abuse when it happens” (citing Chicago Park Dist., 534
17 U.S. at 324–25).

18 As with the parties’ disagreement about the meaning of “appears,” the resolution of this
19 issue is rendered more difficult than it should be by the shortcomings of the Sanitary Code. The
20 word “authorize” appears in the first clause of the Mass Gathering Law and merely qualifies what
21 the Sanitary Code may do — in this case, “authorize officers to issue a permit.” See N.Y. PUBLIC
22 HEALTH LAW § 225(5)(o). If the Sanitary Code explicitly addressed a public official’s duty to

1 issue a mass gathering permit this would be a non-issue. The Sanitary Code, however, says
2 nothing about a public official’s duty, mandatory or discretionary, to issue (or deny) a permit.
3 The Sanitary Code makes clear that no mass gathering may be held without a permit, provides
4 the form and schedule for applying for a permit, dictates what additional information must be
5 submitted with the application, and sets forth the conditions under which a mass gathering permit
6 “may be revoked” — but nowhere does the Sanitary Code provide that a permit shall (or may) or
7 shall not (or may not) be issued or under what circumstances. See N.Y. Comp. R. & Regs. tit.
8 10, § 7-1.40(a), (b), and (d).

9 As previously noted, this Court must construe statutes, where necessary and possible, to
10 avoid serious constitutional issues. See, e.g., Empire HealthChoice Assur., 396 F.3d at 144–45.
11 Were the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code read to “authorize” an official to deny a mass
12 gathering permit even where all statutory and regulatory requirements had been met and no
13 unreasonable danger to life or health was present, the statutory/regulatory scheme would be of
14 more than doubtful constitutional validity. See, e.g., City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at 770 (A
15 presumption that an official will act in good faith and adhere to standards absent from the
16 regulation’s face is undermined when the official is granted unbridled discretion); Dillon v.
17 Municipal Court, 484 P.2d 945, 952 (Cal. 1971) (“The Seaside ordinance is not only devoid of
18 all standards but, to make matters worse, contains no guarantee that a permit will issue even if
19 the application meets all of the five conditions of the section.”). Although the Supreme Court
20 has stated that it “will not write nonbinding limits into a silent state statute,” City of Lakewood,
21 486 U.S. at 770, the Court has also stated that limits may be explicitly provided “by textual
22 incorporation, binding judicial or administrative construction, or well-established practice.” Id.

1 Here, although there is no specific language requiring the issuance of permits in the Mass
2 Gathering Law and Sanitary Code, New York law does generally require that licenses be issued if
3 an applicant satisfies all statutory and regulatory requirements. See Bologno, 7 N.Y.2d at 158
4 (“Refusal to issue a license would, of course, be arbitrary and in excess of reasonable discretion
5 if based solely upon a ground which the Commissioner may not consider.”); Picone, 241 N.Y. at
6 161 (“If an applicant for a license can show that he is a fit and proper person to engage in a
7 licensed business under the provisions of the licensing statute, the licensing officer may not
8 arbitrarily impose limitations not contained in the statute upon his right to do business.”). We
9 read the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code as bound by this construction and interpret the
10 permissive word “authorize” as mandatory. Accordingly, neither the Mass Gathering Law nor
11 the Sanitary Code allows an official to deny a permit to an applicant who has otherwise satisfied
12 the strictures of the statutory and regulatory requirements.

13 2. Requests for Assistance

14 Second, Field Day argues that the last clause of the Mass Gathering Law, providing that
15 “in his review of such applications, as well as in carrying out his other duties and functions in
16 connection with such a gathering,” a permit issuing official “may request and shall receive from
17 all public officers, departments and agencies of the state and its political subdivisions such
18 cooperation and assistance as may be necessary and proper,” N.Y. PUBLIC HEALTH LAW §
19 225(5)(o), unconstitutionally permits such an official to “refuse to request assistance, even where
20 such assistance is both necessary and proper.” As an example, Field Day posits that an official
21 may “capriciously demand[]” that uniformed police officers provide security for the festival but
22 then “refuse[] to provide those officers.” The State counters that Field Day “badly

1 misunderstand[s] the provision” because the Mass Gathering Law does not provide for assistance
2 to the speaker but, instead, to the permit-issuing official. According to the State, such assistance
3 is limited to those duties of the permitting official — reviewing applications, granting permits,
4 and revoking permits — established by the Sanitary Code. See N.Y. Comp. R. & Regs. tit. 10, §
5 7-1.40. The State argues that the provision of security staff is expressly the duty of the mass
6 gathering applicant. See N.Y. Comp. R. & Regs. tit. 10, § 7-1.40(e) (setting forth the
7 “[a]dditional duties of a permittee for a mass gathering,” and requiring that “[a] maintenance and
8 internal security staff acceptable to the permit-issuing official shall be provided”). The State also
9 argues that New York law permits this Court to read “permissive” words as “mandatory” if such
10 construction furthers legislative intent. See N.Y. STAT. § 171 cmt.⁴

11 The answer to Field Day’s challenge comes in two parts. First, in accordance with the
12 comments to N.Y. STAT. § 171 and this Court’s duty to read the statute as constitutional if
13 possible, the most reasonable reading of the “assistance” provision is that a request for assistance
14 must be made if the official determines that such assistance is “necessary and proper.” Second,
15 because neither the Mass Gathering Law nor the Sanitary Code require a permitting official to
16 provide “assistance” to an applicant by, for example, providing police officers as security

⁴ “Whether a given provision in a statute is mandatory or directory is to be determined primarily from the legislative intent gathered from the entire act and the surrounding circumstances, keeping in mind the public policy to be promoted and the results that would follow one or the other conclusion. In this regard, however, it is said that the legislative intent does not depend upon the language in which the intent is clothed, and the fact that a statute is framed in mandatory words such as ‘shall’ or ‘must’, is of slight, if any, importance on the question whether the act is mandatory or directory. Thus mandatory words may be interpreted in a merely permissive sense or vice versa; but where the word ‘may’ appearing in an act was changed to ‘shall’, the court would construe the amendment as being mandatory.” N.Y. STAT. § 171 cmt.

1 personnel, it is not true that the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code permits an official to
2 “choose the events” of favored speakers or favored speech “that will receive public assistance” or
3 “veto events by withholding” assistance from disfavored speech or speakers.

4 In relation to this last point, we note once again that a finding of facial constitutionality
5 does not foreclose “as-applied” challenges. In Chicago Park District the Supreme Court was
6 presented with an ordinance which provided grounds on which the Park District “may” deny a
7 permit rather than “must” deny a permit. Chicago Park District, 534 U.S. at 324. The plaintiffs
8 argued that this provision “allow[ed] the Park District to waive the permit requirements for some
9 favored speakers, while insisting upon them for others.” Id. The Supreme Court observed that
10 such construction was “certainly not the intent of the ordinance, which the Park District has
11 reasonably interpreted to permit overlooking only those inadequacies that, under the
12 circumstances, do no harm to the policies furthered by the application requirements.” Id. at
13 324–25. The Supreme Court went on to explain that “[g]ranting waivers to favored speakers (or,
14 more precisely, denying them to disfavored speakers) would of course be unconstitutional, but
15 we think that this abuse must be dealt with if and when a pattern of unlawful favoritism appears,
16 rather than by insisting upon a degree of rigidity that is found in few legal arrangements.” Id. at
17 325. Similarly, granting public assistance to favored speakers or favored speech in the manner
18 that Field Day complains of would be unconstitutional. Such situations must be dealt with in as-
19 applied challenges if and when they arise.

20 3. Judicial Review

21 Finally, Field Day argues that the Mass Gathering Law is unconstitutional in its entirety
22 because it “denies an applicant effective review of the permitting decision.” Field Day’s

1 argument is premised on the assertion that the statute lacks “objective criteria” on which to base
2 an as-applied challenge. However, as explained in the foregoing, the Mass Gathering Law does
3 provide such criteria. Under Chicago Park District, 534 U.S. at 321–23, because this is a
4 content-neutral, time-place-manner restriction, that is all that is required.

5 Given the foregoing, this Court affirms the District Court’s determination that these
6 provisions of the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code are constitutional.

7 V. As Applied Challenge and Qualified Immunity

8 A. *The Appeal Analyzed*

9 As noted above, Field Day has also asserted an “as-applied” challenge to the actions of
10 Riverhead and Suffolk County, alleging that the actions of Riverhead and Suffolk County
11 employees violated its First Amendment free speech rights. The Suffolk County Employees
12 appeal from the District Court’s denial of their motion to dismiss the as-applied claims asserted
13 in Field Day’s Second Amended Complaint, pursuant to Fed. R. Civ. P. 12(b)(6). The motion
14 was premised on the Suffolk County Employees’ alleged qualified immunity and, as previously
15 discussed, Field Day’s alleged lack of standing. Since “as applied” claims depend on the facts of
16 the case at bar, see Wisconsin Right to Life, 126 S. Ct. at 1018, and we are confronted with a
17 facial challenge to the Complaint, we are confined to an examination of the facts set forth in the
18 Complaint. We, like the District Court, “must accept the allegations contained in the complaint
19 as true, and draw all reasonable inferences in favor of the non-movant.” Sheppard v. Beerman,
20 18 F.3d 147, 150 (2d Cir. 1994) (internal quotation marks and citations omitted). Under that
21 standard, we review the facts of this case, as asserted in Field Day’s Second Amended
22 Complaint.

1 1. The Allegations of the Complaint

2 Field Day “began efforts to promote and produce” the Festival in June 2002. After
3 considering several other locations, its representatives visited Enterprise Park (the “Park”),
4 located within Riverhead, in Suffolk County, New York on November 15, 2002, and soon
5 thereafter notified the Riverhead Town Supervisor that they wanted to lease a portion of the Park
6 for the Festival. On February 20, 2003, Field Day entered into a “License Agreement for
7 Outdoor Event” (the “Agreement”) with the Riverhead Community Development Agency
8 (CDA), a public instrumentality of Riverhead.

9 Under the terms of the Agreement, Field Day paid \$150,000 to lease roughly 1000 acres
10 of the Park from May 5, 2003, until June 22, 2003, for the purpose of holding the Festival.
11 According to the Agreement, Field Day was “responsible for carrying out and shall have
12 exclusive control of all operations associated with the [Festival] and related activities, including .
13 . . security for the [Festival] (other than the officials of the Town Police Department which shall
14 be arranged and provided by the CDA).” The Agreement stated that the CDA “shall provide
15 sufficient police protection (including necessary barriers and bike racks); and any necessary road
16 signs for purposes of directing highway and road traffic only.” The Agreement also stated in part
17 that Field Day “will secure a ‘Mass Gathering Permit,’” that such permit is a “Necessary
18 Approval,” and that “if [Field Day] is unsuccessful in obtaining the Necessary Approvals . . .
19 then this Agreement shall terminate, and the obligations of each party herein shall be null and
20 void.”

21 On February 27, 2003, Field Day held a preliminary meeting with officials from
22 Riverhead and the Suffolk County Department of Health Services (SCDHS), including Suffolk

1 County's Bureau of Public Health Protection Chief Bruce Williamson, Suffolk County's
2 "Principal Public Health Sanitarian" Robert Gerdt, SCDHS Deputy Chief of Operations Martin
3 Matuza, Riverhead Chief of Police David Hegermiller, and Riverhead Fire Marshall Bruce
4 Johnson. At this meeting, Field Day gave copies of its mass gathering permit application (the
5 "Permit Application") to Johnson and Matuza and distributed copies of its Preliminary Draft
6 Event Operation Plan, outlining its plans to ensure "adequate and satisfactory" water, sewerage,
7 toilet, refuse, food, and medical facilities, fire protection services, traffic and transportation
8 arrangements, and other "matters relating to security and public safety."

9 On March 12, 2003, Field Day and SCDHS held a "project coordination meeting" to
10 "discuss the scope of the Festival and the process by which Field Day would satisfy aspects of
11 the New York Mass Gathering Law[]." The meeting was attended by "representatives from most
12 of the Riverhead and Suffolk County agencies involved with the planning of the Festival,"
13 including Suffolk County's Emergency Medical Services, Fire and Rescue Department, and Food
14 Handling Unit, and Riverhead's Fire and Police Departments. At the meeting, Gerdt was
15 authorized by SCDHS to act as "lead agent with respect to the planning of the Festival," and he
16 requested additional copies of Field Day's Application and its Preliminary Draft Event Operation
17 Plan. "At no time did . . . Gerdt or any other public official suggest that receipt of Field Day's
18 Permit Application approximately 75 days prior to the proposed date of the Festival was not
19 sufficient time for the SCDHS to process the Permit Application and fulfill any requirements
20 necessary to ensure the timely issuance of the Mass Gathering Permit."

21 On March 21, 2003, SCDHS held a "four-hour permit planning meeting" involving
22 representatives of Field Day, Suffolk County, and Riverhead. Field Day provided Gerdt with

1 the requested copies of its Permit Application and Preliminary Draft Event Operation Plan” and
2 Gerdts agreed to issue Field Day a “conditional” mass gathering permit by April 25, “pending
3 review of Field Day’s submissions on April 21, 2003.” On March 24, Field Day received a letter
4 from Gerdts acknowledging receipt of Field Day’s Permit Application and indicating that Field
5 Day’s “Preliminary Draft Event Operation Plan” was sufficient in scope to allow Field Day to
6 begin advertising the Festival within fifteen days of the date of the letter. In reliance on this
7 letter, Field Day commenced a “massive advertising campaign and spent nearly \$200,000 to
8 promote the Festival”; began selling tickets “to fans located all around the country and abroad”;
9 “contracted with bands to ensure their participation”; “hired and made deposits with contractor
10 and production vendors for staging, lights, and sound”; purchased insurance; paid licensing fees;
11 and “entered agreements with labor unions to construct the Festival Site and provide the various
12 guest services that would be required at the Festival.”

13 On April 11, 2003, Field Day met with representatives of the Riverhead Police
14 Department, including Chief Hegermiller, the Suffolk County Police Department, and the New
15 York State Police. At this meeting Field Day presented its initial plans for traffic control,
16 transportation, and emergency communication, which it “formulated to conform to Hegermiller’s
17 decision to require uniformed police officers inside as well as outside the Event Site.” Field
18 Day’s representative “walked the attendees through” its “Preliminary Transportation Plan,” using
19 a wall map of the site and handouts. Field Day stated that its Permit Application contemplated
20 60,000 attendees but it expected that it was more likely that only 35,000 to 40,000 people would
21 attend. Field Day also “established a working relationship with the involved agencies in
22 continuing to further develop the plan.”

1 That same day, Hegermiller sent a letter to Suffolk County Police Commissioner John
2 Gallagher, with copies to the Riverhead Town Board and the Riverhead Attorney's Office,
3 requesting Gallagher's assistance for several events scheduled to occur at the Park that summer,
4 including the Festival, "the Bonnaroo Music Festival," and the New York Air Show. The letter
5 requested additional police assistance to "fulfill Riverhead's law enforcement and public
6 assistance obligations to Field Day" under the Licensing Agreement, and stated that although
7 Field Day was providing its own on-site security, "preliminary estimates for police personnel
8 [are] around 200, of which Riverhead could possibly supply around 50." Field Day alleges that
9 Hegermiller's request for 150 Suffolk County police officers "was not based on any standards
10 found in the Sanitary Code or requirements under the New York Mass Gathering Laws" and that
11 its provision of private security inside the site meant that the Riverhead Police Department could
12 alone have provided a reasonable number of police officers to control traffic outside the site and
13 to help with security inside the site. Field Day additionally alleges that "[a]lthough Hegermiller
14 estimated that the daily attendance for the Bonnaroo Festival and New York Air Show would be
15 greater than the estimated attendance at Field Day's event, he did not provide specific police
16 deployment numbers for those events." Nevertheless, "relying on both the timing and substance
17 of Hegermiller's representations in connection with Riverhead's desire for additional uniformed
18 public police presence inside the [Park and Festival site], Field Day acquiesced to Hegermiller's
19 recommendation that he request assistance from Suffolk County. According to Field Day, "[a]t
20 no time did Hegermiller or any other public official inform Field Day that [procuring] additional
21 law enforcement assistance from Suffolk County or elsewhere outside Riverhead would create a
22 logistical or timing problem."

1 On April 15, 2003, Suffolk County officials allegedly convened a meeting to discuss
2 “transportation, security, and communications.” Field Day alleges that “[i]n addition to
3 participants from previous meetings,” this meeting was attended by representatives from the
4 Suffolk County Executive’s Office, including Deputy Suffolk County Executive for Public
5 Safety Joe Michaels, and Suffolk County Police Department Sergeant Patrick Maher. Two days
6 later, nearly a month-and-a-half after Field Day provided SCDHS with its Mass Gathering Permit
7 Application and Preliminary Draft Event Operation Plan, SCDHS sent Field Day a letter
8 containing “a detailed list of requirements for a Mass Gathering Permit.” A day after that, the
9 New York State Police informed Field Day that they would not participate in the Festival as a
10 result of certain “political issues involving Riverhead and the State Police.”

11 On April 22, 2003, Field Day again met with representatives from the Suffolk County and
12 Riverhead Police Departments to “further discuss security, transportation and communication
13 matters.” At this meeting, “and in the presence of SCDHS officials,” Hegermiller informed Field
14 Day’s representative that “SCDHS wanted to charge Field Day a fee of \$2.5 million to process its
15 Permit Application, rather than the \$4500 fee provided for by the permit application fee
16 determination schedule.” Gerdtz also allegedly stated that he did not believe in ““trickle-down
17 economics”” and that the Festival had ““no redeeming value”” as far as he was concerned. About
18 one week later, Field Day received an invoice from the Suffolk County Police Department calling
19 for the payment of “time-and-a-half as well as 30% benefits” for 150 police officers at the
20 Festival, estimated by the Department to be a \$245,616.00 cost.

21 In addition to the permit application processing fee, Suffolk County and Riverhead also
22 subjected Field Day to “numerous discretionary fees not required by New York Mass Gathering

1 Laws,” including \$50,000 for “personnel and equipment” from the “Department of
2 Transportation”; \$15,000 for the assistance of a local fire department; \$17,000 to connect the
3 Festival to the Riverhead water system; and \$22,864 per day “for a local hospital to be ready in
4 case of emergencies.” According to Field Day, Riverhead’s Town Supervisor stated that
5 “Riverhead now felt that it had not charged Field Day enough under the License Agreement and
6 that the water system ‘connection fee’ was being imposed to remedy ‘some of the difference.’”
7 Field Day also “was asked to re-pave roads leading to and from the entrances to the Festival,” a
8 requirement never before imposed for any event held at the Park.

9 On April 30, 2003, Field Day met with representatives from the Suffolk County and
10 Riverhead Police Departments once more to discuss plans relating to traffic and police
11 deployment in greater detail. Field Day presented an updated version of its Transportation Plan
12 and “la[id] out in detail what it believed to be the key traffic control points surrounding the Event
13 Site.” In reliance on “representations and discussions held at this meeting,” Field Day created a
14 “Traffic Control Point Staffing Spreadsheet” for inclusion into the Transportation Plan.

15 On May 5, 2003, Field Day met yet again with representatives from the Suffolk County
16 and Riverhead Police Departments and discussed the “specific deployment of police officers
17 inside the Event Site.” At the conclusion of this meeting, officials from both police departments
18 told Field Day that they would be meeting by themselves on May 8 to finalize the deployment
19 plans and that they would reconvene with Field Day the day after that to discuss the final
20 deployment plan. According to Field Day, at no time did anybody at this meeting indicate to
21 Field Day that the procurement of law enforcement assistance from Suffolk County or any other
22 entity would not be forthcoming.” Likewise,

1 at no time during any of the preceding meetings did the Suffolk County Police
2 Department ever indicate that it would not assist Riverhead with the Festival or
3 that the procurement of that assistance would be a logistical problem. Relying on
4 Defendants' representations at this and prior meetings, Field Day believed that it
5 had satisfied the obligations regarding traffic control, security and
6 communications required to obtain a Mass Gathering Permit from the SCDHS
7 more than 30 days prior to the commencement of the Festival.

8 Unbeknownst to Field Day at that time, throughout April and early May, Clear Channel
9 Entertainment, Inc., by and through its vice-president Ron Delsener, undermined Field Day's
10 efforts to obtain a Mass Gathering Permit for the Festival. The Second Amended Complaint
11 states that Clear Channel Entertainment and its parent company, Clear Channel Communications,
12 Inc., are Field Day's primary competitors in the concert promotion industry and control other
13 Long Island concert venues and that Delsener has contacts with, and political influence over,
14 upper-level public officials in Suffolk County and New York State. Delsener allegedly "sought
15 to enlist the political support of [those] County and State officials and to urge the County to use
16 its authority and political power to prevent [Field Day] from staging the Festival." Specifically,
17 the Complaint alleges that Delsener sent a letter to Suffolk County Executive Robert Gaffney,
18 urging him to prevent the Festival from occurring; telephoned the owner of a golf course near the
19 Park to convince him to oppose the Festival in light of the "massive traffic and security
20 problems" that it would create for his business and other Riverhead residents; and that "a man
21 who said he was from Clear Channel" called a local conservation organization and convinced it
22 to file an (ultimately unsuccessful) motion for an injunction to prohibit the Festival for
23 environmental reasons.

24 On May 9, 2003, Hegermiller called Field Day's "Project Manager" to inform him that
25 the final police deployment meeting scheduled for that day had been cancelled, that "Suffolk

1 County officials were now demanding that the participation of the Suffolk County Police
2 Department could only be effectuated through an inter-municipal agreement between Riverhead
3 and Suffolk County,” and that Suffolk County officials said that Suffolk County could not enter
4 into such an agreement without first obtaining the Suffolk County legislature’s approval. This
5 was the first time that the issue of an “inter-municipal” agreement had been raised, and Field Day
6 was surprised by this “turnaround” in light of the previous indications by Suffolk County police
7 officials that they would assist Riverhead with the Festival.

8 Despite these new developments, Field Day “was informed that there was still sufficient
9 time” for Riverhead and Suffolk County to enter into the requisite “inter-municipal” agreement
10 and for the Suffolk County legislature to approve it. On the afternoon of May 9, 2003, Field
11 Day’s representative met with Deputy Suffolk County Attorney Robert Cabbie and SCDHS
12 representatives to “discuss issues that SCHDS felt were under the domain of the Suffolk County
13 Attorney’s office.” Cabbie promised to, but did not, “arrange to obtain the inter-municipal
14 agreement,” send it to the Riverhead Town Attorney, and “put Field Day in contact with Suffolk
15 County’s Risk Management Department to assure Field Day’s compliance with liability
16 insurance and financial certification requirements.” Beginning on May 12, 2003, when Field Day
17 still had not received a copy of any inter-municipal agreement or information about any insurance
18 or financial requirements, its local counsel called Cabbie “on at least three occasions” to inquire
19 about these issues. Cabbie did not return these calls.

20 Field Day then sent its “police liaison and consultant,” a former Suffolk County Chief of
21 Police, to meet with Police Commissioner Gallagher. The consultant reported back to Field Day
22 “that Gallagher conceded that the Suffolk County Police Department had refused to participate in

1 the Festival for ‘political’ reasons.” The two met again soon after, and Gallagher stated that the
2 deployment of Suffolk County police officers was “completely subject” to Suffolk County
3 Executive Gaffney giving the “political green light.”

4 On May 21, 2003, the Riverhead Town Attorney sent Cabbie a letter stating that she had
5 been advised that the legislature could hold a special meeting to approve the inter-municipal
6 agreement. The Town Attorney requested that the proposed inter-municipal agreement be
7 forwarded to Riverhead and that arrangements be made for a special meeting of the legislature.
8 Cabbie responded by letter the next day (with a copy to Gallagher), stating:

9 At this juncture, it appears that too little time remains to . . . hav[e] an approved
10 cooperation agreement in place before the event. Several steps must be taken to
11 do so. First, the actual language of the agreement must be negotiated. Second,
12 the Riverhead Town Counsel must approve the agreement[.] Third, the agreement
13 must be presented to the Suffolk County Legislature for its approval.

14 The letter went on to state that “legislative approval . . . is considered to be unlikely” because it
15 would require that a “special meeting . . . be noticed and convened by either the County
16 Executive or the Presiding Officer.” The Presiding Officer was “out of state,” and the County
17 Executive was “declining to convene a special meeting.” Moreover, the letter stated that it was
18 “uncertain whether enough legislators to constitute a quorum can be assembled.” Even if
19 legislative approval were to occur at all, stated Cabbie, it would not be until very close to the date
20 of the Festival, and “there [was] concern that a belated disapproval of the agreement would
21 impair timely notification to ticket holders.” In sum, stated Cabbie, Suffolk County would not
22 enter into a cooperation agreement to provide police services for the Festival.

23 According to Field Day, however, “contrary to Cabbie’s representations, the Suffolk
24 County legislature was scheduled to meet on or about June 4th to discuss the re-drawing of the

1 voting districts,” and thus, “there was in fact a scheduled meeting of the legislature at which an
2 inter-municipal agreement could have been approved.”

3 On May 23, 2003, Gallagher sent formal notice to Hegermiller that Suffolk County would
4 not enter into any agreement to provide police assistance for the Festival. No further explanation
5 was provided. At Gerdt’s request, Hegermiller wrote SCDHS to advise it that because of
6 Suffolk’s refusal to offer its assistance in implementing Field Day’s proposed traffic control plan,
7 he was unable to support the issuance of a mass gathering permit for the Festival. Field Day
8 “again offered to Hegermiller to pay for as many security officers and peace officers, including
9 off-duty police officers and corrections officers, as necessary to satisfy Hegermiller’s deployment
10 requirements,” but “Hegermiller again refused [Field Day’s] offer.” On May 27, 2003, Gerdts
11 issued a letter denying Field Day’s application for a Mass Gathering Permit in light of its failure
12 to obtain a “statement from the county sheriff, State Police, New York State Department of
13 Transportation or other law enforcement agency certifying that [its] traffic control plan is
14 satisfactory.

15 On May 28, 2003, Field Day responded by letter to Gerdts, noting that his denial of a
16 permit was premature, as “Field Day was continuing to work with the Riverhead Police
17 Department to secure sufficient numbers of police officers and law enforcement personnel that
18 could be employed to effectuate the security and traffic control plans” and “believed that it could
19 nevertheless obtain certification of the traffic control and safety plans prior to the 48-hour
20 deadline provided by the Sanitary Code.”

21 On June 4, 2003, Hegermiller informed the Riverhead Town Board that he no longer
22 supported the Festival because of Suffolk County’s refusal to provide police assistance.

1 Riverhead then announced that it was withdrawing its support as well and urged Field Day to
2 cancel the event. Riverhead's Supervisor explained that the reason for withdrawal of support
3 was "an unexplained last minute decision" by "upper level County officials" not to participate in
4 the Festival, despite "many months of cooperation and participation in various planning
5 meetings."

6 By the time Field Day received notice of Riverhead's decision, it had sold over 55,000
7 tickets for the Festival at an average price of \$80 per ticket, and had expended more than \$3
8 million to book performers and to promote and stage the Festival. "With fewer than 48 hours
9 before the Festival was to commence, and with thousands of ticket-holders already in route"
10 Field Day was forced to spend "substantial additional sums to secure an alternative venue" in
11 order to mitigate its damages. Field Day was able to secure Giants Stadium (in New Jersey) for a
12 one-day event, which it staged on June 7, 2003 at a loss "in excess of \$5 million including lost
13 revenues, advertising costs, costs associated with . . . staging the Festival at an alternative venue,
14 and injury to its business reputation, financial standing, and goodwill with artists, ticket buyers,
15 . . . and the concert promotion industry." As will be seen, the allegations of the Complaint
16 clearly state a claim upon which relief can be granted for an as-applied challenge to the Mass
17 Gathering Law and its implementing Sanitary Code provisions and do not demonstrate an
18 entitlement to qualified immunity.

19 2. Qualified Immunity

20 Below, Suffolk County and its employees (and Riverhead and its employee, though those
21 parties did not appeal) argued that because the Mass Gathering Law is facially constitutional,
22 enforcing it against Field Day was "reasonable per se and entitled [them] to qualified immunity."

1 The Suffolk County Employees also argued that they properly applied the facially constitutional
2 Mass Gathering Law and therefore no constitutional violation occurred. Field Day argued that
3 the Mass Gathering Law was “so ‘patently unconstitutional’ that enforcing it was ‘objectively
4 unreasonable,’” thereby precluding a defense of qualified immunity. Field Day also argued that
5 the facts of this case precluded the defense of qualified immunity.

6 The District Court first found that “qualified immunity may neither be ruled out per se,
7 nor applied per se, merely because the Defendant enforced the Mass Gathering Law,” given that
8 the Mass Gathering Law “cannot be said to reach the level of ‘blatancy’ necessary to per se strip
9 its enforcers of qualified immunity” and because “[i]t seems too obvious to state, but apparently
10 is not, that a constitutional law must be enforced in a constitutional manner; for if the validity of
11 a law was all that mattered, there would be no such thing as an ‘as applied’ challenge.” Thus, the
12 District Court turned to the merits of the as applied challenge, determined that a violation of a
13 constitutional right was clearly pleaded, and that the pleaded facts supported a finding that no
14 reasonable official

15 could have possibly believed that he was acting in a constitutionally permissible
16 fashion by misleading [Field Day] as to the likelihood of, and requirement for,
17 obtaining a mass gathering permit, imposing special impediments on them, and
18 basing the denial of such a permit on a mis-application of the law (namely,
19 requiring certification of traffic plans for contiguous parking facilities).

20 This Court reviews de novo a ruling granting or denying a Rule 12(b)(6) motion. See,
21 e.g., Flaherty v. Lang, 199 F.3d 607, 612 (2d Cir. 1999). A public official is entitled to qualified
22 immunity if his actions do not “violate clearly established statutory or constitutional rights of
23 which a reasonable person would have known” or “if it was ‘objectively reasonable’ for [the
24 public official] to believe that his actions were lawful at the time of the challenged act.”

1 McClellan v. Smith, 439 F.3d 137, 147 (2d Cir. 2006) (internal quotation marks omitted). “[A]
2 qualified immunity defense can be presented in a Rule 12(b)(6) motion, but . . . the defense faces
3 a formidable hurdle when advanced on such a motion” and is usually not successful. McKenna
4 v. Wright, 386 F.3d 432, 434 (2d Cir. 2004). Dismissal under Rule 12(b)(6) is only appropriate
5 if “it appears beyond doubt that the plaintiff can prove no set of facts in support of his claim
6 which would entitle him to relief.” Id. (internal quotation marks and citation omitted). “In
7 considering a motion to dismiss for failure to state a claim, a district court must limit itself to the
8 facts stated in the complaint, documents attached to the complaint as exhibits and documents
9 incorporated by reference in the complaint.” Hayden v. County of Nassau, 180 F.3d 42, 54 (2d
10 Cir. 1999).

11 On appeal the Suffolk County Employees argue that Field Day’s rights were not clearly
12 established and that their actions were, in any event, not objectively unreasonable. We agree
13 with the District Court: “[B]ased on the allegations in the Complaint, qualified immunity is
14 unavailable at this stage of the proceedings”

15 In support of their assertion that no clearly established right has been pleaded in this case,
16 the Suffolk County Employees make two related arguments. First, they argue that the Mass
17 Gathering Law “withstood a constitutional challenge in the New York State Court system,” citing
18 Sullivan County v. Filippo, 64 Misc.2d 533, 315 N.Y.S.2d 519 (N.Y. Sup. Ct. 1970). Second,
19 citing Vives v. City of New York, 405 F.3d 115 (2d Cir. 2005), the Suffolk County Employees
20 argue that because the Mass Gathering Law had never been declared unconstitutional they were
21 entitled to rely on it as presumptively valid, and thus were without “prior notice of an alleged
22 constitutional infirmity.” These related arguments suffer from the same defect: They confuse

1 and conflate the facial constitutionality of a statute with the unconstitutional application of that
2 same statute.

3 Vives dealt with a facial challenge to New York Penal Law § 240.30(1), prohibiting
4 “aggravated harassment in the second degree.” Vives, 405 F.3d at 116; see also Vives v. City of
5 New York, 305 F. Supp. 2d 289, 301–02 (S.D.N.Y. 2003) (holding the statute unconstitutionally
6 overbroad on its face and not discussing the statute as-applied, save as an example of the
7 statute’s facial constitutional faults). This Court did observe that

8 absent contrary direction, state officials . . . are entitled to rely on a presumptively
9 valid state statute . . . until and unless [the statute is] declared unconstitutional
10 The enactment of a law forecloses speculation by enforcement officers
11 concerning [the law’s] constitutionality — with the possible exception of a law so
12 grossly and flagrantly unconstitutional that any person of reasonable prudence
13 would be bound to see its flaws.

14 Vives, 405 F.3d at 117 (quoting Connecticut ex rel. Blumenthal v. Crotty, 346 F.3d 84, 102–03
15 (2d Cir. 2003) (alterations in original). But this was in the context of a facial challenge, not an
16 as-applied challenge to a facially constitutional law, as Field Day is asserting. Vives has no
17 application to the issue presented here.

18 Neither does Filippo have any application to Field Day’s as-applied challenge. In Filippo
19 the Supreme Court, Sullivan County, New York, rejected a void-for-vagueness challenge to
20 Public Health Law § 225(5)(o) (former § 225(4)(o)) and part 7 of the Sanitary Code and upheld
21 these provisions as constitutional. Filippo, 64 Misc.2d at 557, 558. Inasmuch as Filippo
22 likewise involved only a facial challenge to the Mass Gathering Law, that case has no application
23 to the as-applied claim before us.

1 Less than two years before the events underlying this action occurred, the Supreme Court
2 reaffirmed that the exercise of discretion granted by a facially constitutional licensing regulation
3 to favor certain speakers over others “would of course be unconstitutional.” Chicago Park Dist.,
4 534 U.S. at 325 (“Granting waivers to favored speakers (or, more precisely, denying them to
5 disfavored speakers) would of course be unconstitutional.”). Just as it is obvious that application
6 of a facially neutral law may violate the equal protection clause, see Yick Wo v. Hopkins, 118
7 U.S. 356, 373–74 (1886), so too may the application of a facially neutral law so as to
8 discriminate against certain speakers or ideas violate the First Amendment. In LaTrieste
9 Restaurant and Cabaret Inc. v. Village of Port Chester, 40 F.3d 587 (2d Cir. 1994), for example,
10 a topless cabaret filed a § 1983 action, complaining that a municipality and its officers had
11 “den[ie]d it equal protection of the laws and interfer[ed] with its First Amendment rights” by
12 selectively enforcing its zoning ordinances in an effort to prevent the cabaret from exercising its
13 First Amendment right to have topless dancing on its premises. Id. at 589, 590–91. This Court
14 held that summary judgment in favor of the defendants was precluded where the cabaret had
15 presented evidence of disparate treatment and, based on comments of the officials, that such
16 treatment was due to animus toward the content of the speech (i.e., the nudity). Id.⁵ Indeed, the
17 concern that the government may use facially neutral licensing regulations to engage in content
18 discrimination is the very thing that animates courts to entertain facial challenges to licensing

⁵ The Supreme Court has noted that it “has occasionally fused the First Amendment into the Equal Protection Clause . . . but at least with the acknowledgment . . . that the First Amendment underlies its analysis.” R.A.V. v. City of St. Paul, Minn., 505 U.S. 377, 385 n.4 (1992); see also Police Dept. of City of Chicago v. Mosley, 408 U.S. 92, 96 (1972) (“Necessarily, then, under the Equal Protection Clause, not to mention the First Amendment itself, government may not grant the use of a forum to people whose views it finds acceptable, but deny use to those wishing to express less favored or more controversial views.”).

1 regulations. See City of Lakewood, 486 U.S. at 759 (explaining that facial challenges are
2 permitted because of “the difficulty of effectively detecting, reviewing, and correcting
3 content-based censorship ‘as applied’ without standards by which to measure the licensor’s
4 action”); Rock Against Racism, 491 U.S. at 793 (noting the necessity of “prevent[ing] city
5 officials from selecting wholly inadequate sound equipment or technicians, or even from varying
6 the volume and quality of sound based on the message being conveyed by the performers”). Like
7 the District Court, we thought it “too obvious to state . . . that a constitutional law must be
8 enforced in a constitutional manner.”

9 The Suffolk County Employees also argue that their application of the Mass Gathering
10 Law was objectively reasonable. Under the facts as stated in the Second Amended Complaint,
11 however, that is not so. As set forth above and as found by the District Court, Field Day asserts
12 that various Suffolk County employees “thwarted” Field Day’s efforts to obtain a mass gathering
13 permit through “politically motivated, unreasonable, and capricious demands that were imposed
14 under the guise of the Mass Gathering Law, but that were not actually based on its provisions.”
15 These demands included a “fee of \$2.5 million to process [Field Day’s] Permit Application,
16 rather than the \$4500 fee provided for by the permit application fee determination schedule”
17 made by SCDHS. Field Day was instructed that it would have to pay \$ 245,616.00 to obtain 150
18 Suffolk County police officers for the Festival. Field Day was also required to obtain an
19 “inter-municipal” agreement in order for Suffolk County to provide those police officers — only
20 to have a Deputy Suffolk County Attorney first delay, then mislead, then rebuff, based on a lack
21 of time, Field Day’s efforts to obtain that agreement. All the while, the “Principal Public Health

1 Sanitarian” for SCDHS was asserting that the Festival had “no redeeming value” and various
2 Suffolk County executives were looking to derail the Festival to placate Clear Channel.

3 The Suffolk County Employees argue in their brief that
4 in the case at bar, [Field Day’s] [C]omplaint establishes that 200 police were
5 required for . . . this event. Moreover, [Field Day’s] [C]omplaint establishes that
6 [it] had secured only 50 police for this event at the time the [m]ass [g]athering
7 [p]ermit was denied. Thus, by its own terms, [Field Day’s] [C]omplaint
8 establishes that denial of the [m]ass [g]athering [p]ermit was objectively
9 reasonable.

10 Field Day asserts, however, that 200 police officers were not, in fact, needed.

11 Moreover, the letter from Gertz to Field Day rejecting the Application relied only on a
12 misapplication of § 7-1.41 of the Sanitary Code. That letter stated that because Hegemiller did
13 not find the traffic control plan to be satisfactory, ostensibly because fewer than 200 police
14 officers could be provided, Field Day’s engineering report had failed to include “a statement
15 from the county sheriff, State police, New York State Department of Transportation or other law
16 enforcement agency certifying that the traffic control plan is satisfactory.” See N.Y. Comp.
17 Codes R. & Regs. tit. 10, § 7-1.41(d)(2). However, § 7-1.41(d)(2) makes clear that it applies
18 only to plans “for transportation arrangements from noncontiguous parking facilities to the site.”
19 Id. (emphasis added). Field Day’s parking facilities were contiguous and, therefore, §
20 7-1.41(d)(2) clearly did not apply.

21 To the extent that the Suffolk County Employees now invoke other sections of the
22 Sanitary Code to support the denial of the Application, New York law limits this Court’s review
23 “to the grounds invoked by the agency.” Scherbyn, 77 N.Y.2d at 758. Furthermore, in
24 accordance with the interpretation of the Mass Gathering Law and Sanitary Code given above,

1 the rejection of the Application based on any other ground would still have to be reasonable, and
2 Field Day has alleged that the rejection was unreasonable.

3 Finally, the Suffolk County Employees raised, for the first time at oral argument, several
4 new contentions, including that Suffolk County had no duty to provide police officers to assist in
5 this event and that, therefore, the refusal of assistance could not be a constitutional violation.
6 “Issues not sufficiently argued in the briefs are considered waived and normally will not be
7 addressed on appeal.” Norton v. Sam’s Club, 145 F.3d 114, 117 (2d Cir. 1998). We note only in
8 passing that the Second Amended Complaint, read fairly, indicates that Field Day could prove
9 that Suffolk County has provided assistance to other events at the Park, including the New York
10 Air Show and the Bonnaroo Music Festival, and that its refusal here was based solely on
11 disapproval of Field Day as speaker or the content of Field Day’s speech. Such conduct would,
12 of course, raise serious constitutional concerns. See Chicago Park Dist., 534 U.S. at 325
13 (“Granting [discretionary] waivers to favored speakers (or, more precisely, denying them to
14 disfavored speakers) would of course be unconstitutional.”). However, we do not pass on this
15 issue given the lack of briefing to this Court.⁶

16 Nothing in the Suffolk County Employees’s brief to this Court undermines the conclusion
17 of the District Court: “It is . . . hard to fathom how any reasonable official in the [Suffolk County

⁶ Also for the first time at oral argument, the Suffolk County Employees argued that one of the named defendants in this case, Suffolk County Commissioner of Health Brian L. Harper, came to public office only after the events underlying this action and therefore should be dismissed from the case. Harper has been sued only in his official capacity, not in his personal capacity, and has, indeed, been substituted as a named defendant in place of his predecessor in office. That Harper did not hold office at the time of these events is, therefore, of no matter. Cf. Kentucky v. Graham, 473 U.S. 159 (1985); Ying Jing Gan v. City of New York, 996 F.2d 522 (2d Cir. 1993).

1 Employees'] shoes could have possibly believed that he was acting in a constitutionally
2 permissible fashion.” Given the allegations contained in Field Day’s Second Amended
3 Complaint, qualified immunity is unavailable on a motion to dismiss pursuant to Fed. R. Civ. P.
4 12(b)(6). Accordingly, the District Court’s denial of the Suffolk County Employees’s motion to
5 dismiss is affirmed.

6 **CONCLUSION**

7 Accordingly, we reverse so much of the District Court’s Order as declares portions of the
8 New York Mass Gathering Law and implementing provisions of the Sanitary Code facially
9 unconstitutional, severs those portions, and grants an injunction against their application. We
10 affirm so much of that Order as declares the remainder of the New York Mass Gathering Law
11 and implementing provisions of the Sanitary Code facially constitutional. We also affirm the
12 Order denying the motion for dismissal of the Complaint premised on lack of standing and
13 qualified immunity.